

# THE AMERICAN

## A NATIONAL JOURNAL

VOL. XXIX—No. 734

PHILADELPHIA, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1898

PRICE FIVE CENTS

### THE AMERICAN.

A NATIONAL JOURNAL.

PUBLISHED WEEKLY ON EACH SATURDAY.

[Entered at the Post Office at Philadelphia as matter of the second class.]

BARKER PUBLISHING COMPANY, PROPRIETORS.  
WHARTON BARKER, EDITOR AND PUBLISHER.  
BUSINESS AND EDITORIAL OFFICES,  
Rooms 24 and 25  
Forrest Building, No. 119 South Fourth Street, Philadelphia.

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\*Address through Post Office: THE AMERICAN, Box 1202, Philadelphia.

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#### CARDINAL TENETS OF THE PEOPLES PARTY.

Creation and Maintenance of an Honest Measure of Values.  
Free Coinage of Gold and Silver.  
Government Ownership and Operation of Railroad, Telegraph and Telephone Lines.  
Opposition to Trusts.  
Opposition to Alien Ownership of Land and Court-made Law.  
Recognition of the Right of the People to Rule. *i. e.*, The Initiative and Referendum.

#### NOTES OF THE WEEK.

EXCEPTING Secretary Day, the men selected by the President as Peace Commissioners, to speak for us at Paris, have yet to make names for themselves as diplomatists. Mr. Whitelaw Reid did indeed serve his country in a diplomatic position as Minister to France during Mr. Harrison's administration, or perhaps it would be more correct to say that his country served him by sending him to such post, for doubtless the holding of such post gave him enjoyment though it did not redound to the measureable profit of his country. Indeed as minister he did not rise above mediocrity; as a diplomatist he did not shine

though it is only just to say that no occasion arose during his ambassadorship such as to call out any latent diplomatic skill that he may have possessed.

Of the commissioners appointed three, Senators Davis and Frye and Mr. Reid, are strong expansionists, two, Judge Day and Supreme Court Justice White, are not. But as the commissioners are to act not primarily on their own judgment but upon that of the President, as it is understood they are merely to act as the President's mouthpieces, as vehicles for the conveyance of his demands, a weighing of their own individual views is of no great concern, and their selection gives no inkling of what the President's instructions will be.

And bear in mind that it is the President, through such instructions, who will largely dictate the treaty of peace and the disposition of the Philippine question. It may be, indeed, that he will make those instructions so broad and general and indefinite as to shunt off the responsibility of outlining a general policy to the shoulders of the commissioners, but the press reports are that he is not disposed to shunt such responsibility, and that the instructions he will give will be very positive and direct.

THE indications are that the President will instruct the Peace Commissioners to insist upon the cession to us of the island of Luzon, but not of the other Philippines. Pressure will, of course, be brought to bear upon the President to induce him to increase his demands and incline him to the policy of keeping all the Philippines, and to this pressure he may yield.

From his own party on the Pacific slope there comes a general demand for the keeping of all the Philippines with the view to the extension of our foreign trade. Thus the Republican State Convention of California recently declared that "the national welfare demands the retention . . . of the Philippines in order to permit the expansion of American trade and . . . safeguard commerce already secured in the Orient." Thus California Republicans in convention assembled declared very positively for expansion, but they coupled this declaration with the, to many, embarrassing demand that "in the event of the retention of this foreign territory it be the policy of the United States to extend its benefit of free commercial intercourse with all sections of the American union," and that "to that end the provision of the Constitution requiring that 'all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States' be rigidly enforced." That means free trade between the Philippines and the United States but not free trade between the Philippines and the rest of the world, it means that importations of foreign goods into the Philippines be discriminated against in favor of American goods. To leave no doubt on this point, to burn in their meaning, the California Republicans at their state convention followed up the above declarations by pledging all legislative candidates of the Republican party "to choose a United States Senator who in dealing with the question of the retention of the Philippines and Puerto Rico, will devote all his energies to retaining the protective policy of the United States."

THE very mention of the provision in our National Constitution requiring that all tariff duties shall be uniform throughout the United States, and mere pointing to such provision as obligating us to extend our protective system to the Philippines if we annex them and so secure the markets of the Philippines to our own people and to the practical exclusion of those who now supply them, is sufficient to throw some of our anglo-manists who urge our joining hands with England to keep open a free market for goods in China into very tantrums of rage. If we are not going to keep open the doors to free trade with the Philippines, how with good grace can we ask England to help us keep open a free market for our goods in China? How, they ask, can we pursue one policy in the Philippines, a policy counter to British interests, destructive of British markets and then ask England to let us join hands with her in pursuit of the opposite policy towards China? And so they conclude that if we close Philippine markets to British goods by discriminating duties we will lose the open market in China.

But on this score the anglo-manists can quiet their fears. If we close the Philippine markets to British goods and then choose to ask England to join us in keeping the markets of China open, we can do so without fear of any rebuff, for Britain, for her own sake, is only too anxious to have us join forces and influence with her to keep open the Chinese markets. But for our part we would much regret any such joining of hands and influence, any mixing in the Chinese imbroglio to gain entrance to a market that is not capable of the great extension that many think and for the reason that the Chinese, when they awaken, will fill their own wants.

OF COURSE, if we annex the Philippines and then extend our tariff system to them as demanded by California Republicans, as required by our Constitution, the British people will suffer a rude shock and our anglo-manists may grieve thereat. Perhaps when the British grasp the fact that under our Constitution the annexation of the Philippines will mean free entrance into those islands of American goods, but entrance of British only on payment of such duties as similar goods would pay on entrance into the United States, and that therefore annexation means the building up of American export trade to the Philippines at the expense of British, they will not be so anxious that we should annex those islands.

Our trade with those islands has in the past consisted of the importation of about four million dollars' worth of produce a year, nearly three-fourths of our imports consisting of Manila hemp and the other quarter largely of sugar, while our exports to Manila have come only to about the paltry sum of \$100,000 worth a year. Great Britain, on the other hand, has found, during late years, a market in the Philippines for about \$7,500,000 worth of produce a year, while exports of Philippine produce to Great Britain have been worth about a third as much, or \$2,500,000. The annexation of the Philippines to the United States and the extension of our tariff system to those islands, while removing all duties on trade between the islands and the United States, would close this market for seven millions and a half worth or thereabouts of goods to the British producer and open that market to us. It is to get this market, and more of it now held by other European countries, that California Republicans urge annexation of the Philippines. Yet the truth is that as tempting as is such trade there is trade open to us in other directions and at home that we can exploit to greater profit and by the putting of which to one side we would lose more than we would gain by extending our trade with the Philippines.

THERE are some pages in our history that we wish it were not necessary to write, pages that we would gladly blot out if we could thereby blot out the wrongs, the sufferings, the negligent,

criminal conduct of American officials that is recorded thereon. Sickening tales from our camps and hospitals, tales of the maltreatment, the sufferings, the ravages of disease in our military camps multiply appallingly. And with the tales comes the fearful knowledge that men have been and are being stricken down by the hundreds by diseases that are really of a preventable nature, that can be guarded against, and that if proper steps had been taken to protect the health of our troops would never have become epidemic in our camps. So too do reports of lack of care of the sick, incompetency, or, what is worse, indifference of our military doctors; lack of care, incompetence, indifference that is responsible for the death of many soldiers who should never have been permitted to die, and with half decent treatment would not have died, come flowing in upon us until we feel as if every officer and doctor in charge in the war department bureaus or in the fields must be incompetent, remiss in duty or dishonest.

AND meanwhile General Alger who, as the captain of all the bungling crew, must be held chiefly responsible, astounds us with his egotism, with interviews of self-laudation and declared belief that the soldiers in our camps are as well off as can be expected, that there is no room for fault finding. He displays such a profound lack of knowledge in discussing the conditions in the camps, that we gasp in very astonishment. Thus in a carefully prepared announcement he declared that no one was responsible for the fright-typhoid epidemics, that "no one could imagine that out of the men placed in the various camps thousands of them would suddenly be stricken down with typhoid fever." But by careful examination of the water supplied the camps the seeds of typhoid fever could have been discovered before planted in the systems of whole regiments of soldiers, and being discovered, the planting of such seed could have been guarded against and so epidemics of typhoid made impossible. But Secretary Alger continues: "Everything went well at first in the chosen camps, but all at once, practically in one day, thousands of men were stricken down with typhoid fever. It became an epidemic everywhere."

Here he expresses surprise that thousands of men should have been stricken down with the fever almost in one day. But there is nothing surprising in it. Allowing the excrement from some poor typhoid patient in the army or without to pollute the drinking water supplied to a camp it is not surprising but natural that thousands of men should have been taken down with typhoid together. And this pollution of the water supply of the camps the doctors in charge did allow. We may grant that such pollution might have occurred even if all due care had been taken to prevent, but though the doctors could not have prevented with absolute certainty the pollution of the water they could, by keeping watch over the water, have discovered when it became polluted and so given warning that the water was poison, ordered that a new source of water should be obtained, that until this could be obtained all the water used should be boiled and could have insisted on the moving of the camps away from the polluted water supplies.

To keep such watch over the water supply and thus guard against the soldiers drinking water poisoned with typhoid germs was the duty of the doctors in charge of the camps. But not keeping watch, they permitted the troops in their care to be poisoned. And when whole regiments drank the poisoned water, swallowed the typhoid poison together it was a natural sequence that hundreds should be stricken down with the disease together, for it takes a fixed time for the typhoid germs to develop, multiply. So all those soldiers whose systems were somewhat run down and in which the typhoid germs took root were naturally stricken down with the disease together. The fact that they were so stricken down simply proves that they were all supplied with poisoned water at the same time, with water which the doc-



tors by examining frequently, and as they should, could have discovered was poisoned and so stopping its use could have prevented the poison from having been taken.

That there should have broken out typhoid epidemics is due to the criminal negligence of the doctors whose first care should have been to guard against the use of polluted water, to this and nothing else. If there were only scattered cases of typhoid there would be no fault to find, for men impelled by thirst will at times drink the first water that comes to hand and if such water happens to be polluted they would then swallow the poison that might develop into typhoid. But the typhoid epidemics point to a pollution of the general water supply and the use of such water after pollution, save after taking care to boil the water and kill the poison the doctors could and should have prevented.

BUT the negligence of the doctors did not end with their failure to keep the soldiers from using poisoned water. We have to listen to reports of negligence and incompetency in the care of the sick, we have to listen to reports of sick men dying from want of proper food and medicines. And all the defense of the doctors is that such food and medicine was not supplied the hospitals. For such failure responsibility does rest, indeed, and primarily, with the quartermaster's department. But if the doctors had kicked hard enough and publicly enough the hospitals would not have long remained unsupplied. In short, if the doctors had done their full duty the incompetents in the quartermaster's department would have long since been deprived of their commissions and swept to one side. We say this not to excuse in any way the shortcomings in the quartermaster's department, but to show up the responsibility of the army doctors who have brought disgrace to their profession.

Nor does all the blame for the criminal want of care taken to provide for the comfort and health of our soldiers in camp in the United States and who were not called upon to leave our shores belong to the quartermaster's department and the doctors. Part of that responsibility belongs to the regimental officers in the camps. That this is so is made evident by some sharp contrasts between the condition of different regiments in camp. Thus at Chickamauga there is one regiment that has signally escaped the scourge of sickness that has overtaken the others and that to-day is in fit condition to embark on an active campaign, the Sixth United States Volunteers under Colonel Tyson. This regiment, in the midst of a camp that has been a very pesthole, that should have been abandoned weeks since for a fresh camp, has not sent a single man to the hospital. And this is due to the Colonel, who has done for his regiment what the doctors should have seen done for the army, carefully guarded against any use of water by his men that was in any way liable to pollution. So keeping his men from the use of typhoid-poisoned water, his regiment has escaped typhoid, and as he has managed to keep his men in health by the observance of every hygienic regulation and capable of thriving on army rations, they have not suffered from the shortcomings of the quartermaster's department and the negligence and incompetence of the doctors so noticeable in the hospitals of that camp. And what Colonel Tyson has done for his regiment other regimental commanders could have in large measure done for theirs if they had the same insight and ability. But that they have not had, which, as most of them, commanders of the volunteer regiments, have had no training, is not at all surprising. Yet to this lack of ability part of the want of proper care for our armies in camp must be put down.

BUT the incompetence of regimental commanders to keep their camps in hygienic condition, their failure to grasp the high importance of maintaining a strict discipline over their men in hygienic matters and that has opened the way to the thinning of the ranks of the regiments and the filling of the hospitals, is no

excuse for the terrible shortcomings in the hospital service, for the failure to render patients proper care. Quite true if all the regiments had been protected as successfully against sickness as Colonel Tyson has protected his regiment, there would have been no exposure of incompleteness in hospital arrangements, of the incompetency of those in charge to render patients proper care and give them proper treatment, for the simple reason that the hospital service would not have been tested, would not have been put in use. But the hospital service is organized for use not ornament, and when put to use it has failed ignominiously, failed to properly care for the sick.

THE onus of this failure naturally comes home to the Surgeon General of the army, Dr. Sternberg, an accomplished bacteriologist, but, as he has shown, no organizer. And this doctor has put forth one of the most remarkable apologies for the falling down of the hospital service, the failure, inexcusable, to supply the patients with plenty of proper food and medicines, that is on record. Thus he says the "Red Cross Association has had full authority to send agents and supplies to all our camps since June 9, and if there has been suffering for want of needed supplies they must share the responsibility with the medical department of the army for such suffering."—Just as if it was the duty of the Red Cross Association to raise the money and feed the sick in the military hospitals and supply them with medicine and nurse the patients. All this is the duty of the medical department of the army and that duty it should perform so thoroughly that there would be nothing left that the Red Cross could do. To hear such twaddle makes one grit one's teeth and feel like physically taking such an incompus by the nape of the neck and booting him out of the war department.

If Dr. Sternberg had taken his microscope down to Camp Alger and examined the water supplied the soldiers for typhoid germs he could probably have rendered some service of value to his country; in his present position his services have been worse than valueless.

THE piling up of money in the National Treasury is going on at a great rate. During the month just closed \$40,000,000 has been taken out of circulation and so piled up. And there is still \$50,000,000 remaining to be paid on account of the bond issue while revenues are running at the rate of \$500,000,000 a year. So there is prospect of still further contraction and piling up of currency for before the \$50,000,000 yet to be paid in on account of bonds is spent it is probable that the expenditures of the government will have fallen down to the limits of the increased revenues. And then, of course, the scattering of money hoarded in the Treasury as the result of the bond sales and by payments to meet deficits will cease. Then the hoard will become permanent, there will be a hoard of money taken out of the channels of production and locked up in the Treasury vaults, and there will be no way for the Secretary of the Treasury to use this hoard to redeem our funded debt, even if he has the will, save by buying bonds at a high premium for there are no government bonds falling due and redeemable at par until 1904, excepting some \$14,000,000 of Pacific Railroad bonds guaranteed by the United States.

THIS piling up of money in the Treasury is beginning to make itself felt. The absorption of money by the United States has depleted the cash reserves of the New York banks until now they are almost down to a point where the banks cannot further extend their loans until they increase their reserves either by drawing money from the rest of the country or from Europe. And this is not a period of the year when it is likely money can be drawn from the rest of the country to New York. Indeed, it is a period during which money naturally flows the other way, flows from New York to the South and West to move the crops. So the



hope of building up their reserves so that they may extend their loans is dependent on gold imports. And considerable gold is already coming, coming from Australia on European account and directly from Europe.

So it is anticipated that the banks can soon again extend their loans, that there will be plenty of loanable funds and that there will be no material rise in interest rates. Any such rise would doubtless bring large imports of gold. But in counting on gold imports it will be well to keep in mind that the demand for our grain is not as active as it was last year, that as a consequence we are exporting a smaller quantity and at lower prices. The result is that our export trade is held down and does not promise to equal the tremendous figure of the last fiscal year. At the same time imports are larger than a year ago. So the probabilities are that the balance of trade in our favor will be less this year than last, and so our ability to command gold smaller.

OF THE money being paid into the Treasury on account of the bond sales, much the greater portion consists of gold coin. Consequently the Treasury holdings of gold have become very large and the disposition of Treasury officials to pay out gold coin and put it in circulation has much increased. And the fact is that gold is not willingly taken, that our people much prefer paper, so gold has virtually to be forced into circulation. Confronted with such conditions it is hard to understand why Secretary Gage does not authorize the issue of gold certificates against deposits of gold coin. A decade ago such gold certificates were circulating to a very considerable amount, and gold thus found large use just as silver now finds large use, the gold being deposited in the Treasury and the people passing around the claims to such deposits, in other words, the gold certificates, just as they now pass around the silver certificates and with such certificates the title to silver dollars in the Treasury.

The law authorizing the issue of gold certificates provided that when the net gold reserve in the Treasury was under \$100,000,000 the issue of such certificates should be suspended. So when the gold reserve fell below the \$100,000,000 mark, early in Mr. Cleveland's last administration, Mr. Carlisle, as Secretary of the Treasury, suspended the issue of gold certificates. When that reserve was restored by the issue of bonds for gold he again authorized the acceptance of gold on deposit and the issue of gold certificates against such deposits. But the gold reserve falling on several occasions thereafter below \$100,000,000 the issue of gold certificates was again duly suspended. And finally, Secretary Carlisle reasoning that if men wanted paper in exchange for gold, they would deposit their gold and take out gold certificates if they could get them, and would not deposit gold in exchange for greenbacks or Treasury notes, and, therefore, concluding that the issue of gold certificates was a hindrance to the building up of the gold reserve, refused after one suspension of the issue of gold certificates, because of a depleted gold reserve, to authorize a resumption of such issue upon the replenishment of the gold reserve, and the suspension, thus inaugurated, has been kept up.

But surely with such a greater proportion of the Treasury cash balance in gold than in paper that the Treasury officials are less desirous of holding on to gold than to paper, which for many uses is more convenient than gold, this Carlisle reason for refusing to re-authorize the issue of gold certificates has lost its force. Yet for some reason Mr. Gage refuses to authorize the issue of gold certificates and so provide the people with paper money, which they so much prefer to gold.

The New York *Sun*, reasoning that Mr. Gage is an ardent advocate of the substitution of bank notes for our national currency, pertinently asks: "Does he take this occasion to demonstrate the inconvenience of not permitting a larger issue of bank notes, and thereby of securing support for his pet scheme."

And the *Sun* answers: "Whether he does or not, his course serves only to strengthen the determination of the people to have a purely government currency, made elastic by deposits of gold in the Treasury." That is a currency dependent for its elasticity on the accidents effecting the production of gold, not the demands of trade and industry. Verily a fine sort of elastic currency.

WHY not a presidential candidate with a catchy nickname: "Teddy" Roosevelt? Why not hew the military hero of the war into presidential timber? His friends urge him to stand for Governor of New York, and Boss Platt, one of the most gentlemanly of bosses, appears to be more than willing to take the nomination promised to Governor Black, who has no chance of winning, and give it to Col. Roosevelt, who has a chance. The unwilling party seems to be Roosevelt himself, who fears that he would be defeated and so lose power and position much enhanced by his Santiago campaign.

But, Platt! why should he be so ready to make Roosevelt the candidate, make one the candidate whom, the common judgment is, would snap his fingers in the face of the boss? Why! Because he sees a clear way to exalting his own position and power through the exalting of Roosevelt.

Platt has not had any very pleasing treatment at the hands of President McKinley, he has not had the Federal patronage of New York to give around and he is in no way anxious to see the re-election of Mr. McKinley. And he fancies he knows the key to unlock Roosevelt's heart, said to be locked against all boss rule, fancies that a whisper in Roosevelt's ear as Governor, that if he would treat the big boss right he could have the delegation of New York to press his name for President before the Republican convention of 1900 would incline him to beam with no unfriendly eye on Senator Platt and assure him that he would be the great man in Washington if it ever was in his power to make him so.

Such are the thoughts we fancy are coursing through Boss Platt's brain. Roosevelt, military hero and out of the war with credit which, perhaps, will not be said of Mr. McKinley a few weeks hence, certainly will not if he strive to shelter Alger; Roosevelt elected Governor of New York—why not just the man to make head against Mr. McKinley, to wrest the Republican nomination from him in 1900; Roosevelt President and Roosevelt owing his place to Platt, what pleasing thoughts for Mr. Platt. So groom Roosevelt for the Presidential race, it is such scheming that is the making of a goodly part of political history.

THE Bryan Democrats seem to be much disturbed over the attitude of the Democratic party of New York. The attitude of the party in the Empire State does not appear to be friendly, it looks as if the Democratic party of the East was drawing hopelessly away from the Democratic party of the West. Hence the anxiety of the Bryan Democrats, for with the Democratic party split in twain, with an Eastern Democratic party standing where the party of Cleveland stood, a Western Democratic party standing with Bryan, the party will be powerless in 1900. Yet that the Bryan Democrats almost despair of holding the party in the Eastern states in line with them, is evident from the course that Ex-Governor Stone, of Missouri, is taking in New York. He is working with the silver Democrats of New York with might and main to get them to keep up an organization in accord with the Democratic organizations of the Western states, come what may. If they cannot control the regular organization he urges them to make a new, to make a second Democratic party in New York and that, he earnestly declares, will be the party recognized as entitled to representation in the next Democratic convention.

Thus he has declared that: "If New York desires to exercise any influence in the next National Convention, it must be in line



with the National Democracy. I hope there is no truth in the report," that the Democratic Convention of New York will not stand on the Chicago platform, "but if unfortunately this should prove to be well founded, I hope the real Democrats of New York may find some means of preserving their party organization, if for no other reason than that they may have a representative delegation at the next National Convention." It is nothing less than the reading of the riot act to New York Democrats, nothing less than reading the Democratic party of the state of New York out of the National party if it refuses to step in the footsteps of the Bryan Democrats.

#### THE CZAR'S APPEAL FOR DISARMAMENT.

THE APPEAL of Emperor Nicholas II to Europe to disarm, to enter upon the ways of peace, of progress, free from the cumbrance of crushing armaments may be chimerical, may be quixotic, but the sincerity of him who caused this remarkable state paper to be promulgated we do not doubt and not doubting we must write the name of the Emperor of all the Russias as an autocrat whose high ideal is to serve his fellow men. It may be that the disposition among some of Europe's rulers to despoil any people who lay themselves open to attack, the disposition of the mighty to despoil the weak is so strong that they will look upon the Czar's appeal as the ludicrous and treat it as such, it may be that the mutual suspicions among European rulers are so deep seated that disarmament cannot be effected from very aversion to be the first to disarm, aversion to disarm until the other powers show their good faith by disarming and that as a consequence disarmament cannot be brought about from very inability to make a beginning. Indeed we are much inclined to believe that some nations have too much treasured the dream of profiting by despoiling their neighbors, or of revenge and indemnity for past injury and despoilment to dispose them to reduce their armaments without the fulfilment of such dream. Thus we have at once the French press insisting that Germany must return the lost provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, must rectify the wrong done France in 1870-71 and sealed by the treaty of Frankfort before France can consider the question of disarmament. And this is not an illogical demand for if Europe is to disarm, to put aside the sword as a means for the righting of wrongs, a rule of reason and justice must take the place of might and united Europe must see that disputes and differences between nations are settled by that rule as are differences between individuals in justly governed states.

But Europe can hardly be expected to open up old sores, to re-try questions that have been submitted to the arbitrament of the sword, to see that indemnification is made for old wrongs. If such disputes were reopened there would be no end to them, and if United Europe, disarming, establishes a court for the settlement of disputes it must consider the past as closed pages in history, must confine itself to the prevention of international aggressions in the future not the rectification of the wrongs of the past.

Such is the only basis upon which disarmament can be effected, and such basis is, we fear, almost impossible of attainment, for long treasured dreams of despoilment or of revenge are too dear to be readily dropped. Some of these dreams we admit are worthy; with the French people in their dream for the reconquest of Alsace-Lorraine, the freeing of a French people from German domination we can sympathize, but yet we must remember the ambition of a French Napoleon as much as the ambition of a German Bismarck was the bottom cause of the Franco-German war and the loss of the French Rhenish provinces, and that Germans would find it as hard if not harder to surrender those provinces than the French would find the surrender of their dream of reconquest.

Again, we fear there are some rulers who look upon the despoilment of other peoples as the quickest way to self aggrandizement, and to attain this end have built up great armaments. And these rulers are not likely to abandon the purpose they have relentlessly pursued for years. It may be, indeed, that experience has taught them that such armament on their own part only leads to similar armament on the part of those whom they would despoil, and that as a consequence all their armament brings them no nearer the accomplishment of their purpose, as it fails to give them crushing superiority over those whom they have regarded as peoples to be preyed upon. Indeed, bitter experience may have served to teach them that their great armaments, made with a view to despoil, have not served their end, but have served to crush down industry, hinder national growth, bring weakness rather than added strength. And so they may be ready to disarm. Thus may the present Emperor of Germany, war lord that he is, insistent upon an enlarged army and navy as he has been, be disposed to chime in with the Emperor of Russia, reverse the policy of the German Empire, the policy in which Germany has led Europe for a generation, and cry for disarmament.

It was after the Franco-German war of 1870-71, after France had shown wonderful powers of recuperation, that Germany drove Europe to a rapid increase in armaments, an increase that has not ceased, but gone steadily onward up to to-day, until the military expenses of the European powers are double what they were thirty years ago. By the war of 1870-71, Bismarck believed he had crushed France, crushed her utterly. But when he saw the marvellous display that France gave of recuperative power, he saw that he was mistaken and set his heart on making war again on France and completing the job. So Germany, under his leadership, increased her armaments, increased them with the purpose of using them to despoil France. Of necessity France, to protect herself, was obliged to respond by an increase of her armaments, and Russia seeing danger to herself in the ambitions of Bismarck, increased her armament that she might be in position to command a halt on those ambitions. And that halt she did call in 1875, when the Emperor Alexander II. intervened to prevent Germany from again making war upon France.

Then as France grew richer she rapidly increased her army with the obvious purpose in view of reconquering the provinces lost in 1870-71. Thus between 1874-75 and 1880-81, her military and naval budgets increased from 665,900,000 francs for the former year to 1,016,100,000 for the latter. She has since considerably reduced her military expenses, for she found the self-imposed drain was more than she could bear. But Germany, with her increase in population, has gone on steadily increasing her armaments, especially of late years, and no European country has, as a consequence, felt it to be safe to reduce armament even though the effort to keep up military effectiveness has brought more than one to the verge of bankruptcy and carried one over.

Thus has arming to despoil on the part of one country, arming for revenge on the part of another, driven all Europe to arm and those who have armed from the fear of aggression on the part of others fear to disarm until those others disarm, and the danger, real or cudgeled up in their brains, is removed. So the mutual suspicion of aggression stands in the way of the disarmament that all Europe so much needs, which many rulers doubtless pine for yet dare not make.

If Europe's rulers could banish the temptation to tread unchristian and barbaric paths, banish the temptation to enrich themselves, extend their power and influence by despoiling other peoples; if they could banish the suspicion that those who renounce such unchristian policy are not sincere in their renunciation, the way to general disarmament would be clear. But, unfortunately, such temptations are not readily put to one side,



such mutual suspicions too deep seated to be easily forgotten. And so we fancy the appeal of the Emperor of Russia will result in naught, that the international peace conference that will doubtless be assembled in response thereto, will fail to arrive at any agreement.

Yet for such appeal of the Emperor, an appeal on behalf of downtrodden suffering humanity, of progress, of civilization, we honor him. Assuming that such appeal is not made from some ulterior and unworthy motive, and its sincerity we have no reason to doubt, it places the Emperor in the roll of those who, with great power for good or evil, select to use it for good, to stamp out evil; it shows him to have the high ideal of a well-wisher of the human race, to be a worthy descendant of his grandsire, the Emperor Alexander II., the emperor who freed the Russian serfs and started them in life as freemen and as owners in part of the soil to which they had so long been bonded and done so much to give value to by their labor, the emperor who came to the assistance of the American Union in its hour of peril, preventing England and France from espousing the cause of the Confederacy.

These two acts, the freeing of the Russian serfs and what he believed to be the prevention of the dismemberment of the American Union due to his intervention, Alexander II. considered the two greatest works of his life. Two years before his assassination because he had more care for his people, for the masses who called him father, than the court parties who sought to enrich themselves by despoiling the people whom he regarded as his wards, before his assassination by what is called the Nihilist party and commonly believed to be a party having its birth in tyranny and oppression, but really as the result of court jealousies, because he stood in the way of the court parties tyrannizing over the people, because he hindered the fulfillment of selfish and unworthy ambitions, because he, the autocrat of all the Russias, was the protector of the weak against the powerful, the masses against the classes, before he was assassinated not because he was a tyrant but because he loved his people and protected them, he said, in an interview with the writer, that he considered the two above-mentioned works the bright pages in his history. One work, the emancipation of the serfs, was done in the interest of his people. What he considered to be his other great work, the other great accomplishment of his reign, his intervention to prevent the dismemberment of the American Union, he also did with a view to the interests of his own people, not from any great love for the American people but in the belief that America alone could grow and curb the world-wide domination of Great Britain that was checking and threatening to check Russian expansion, in the belief that if the American Union was disrupted Britain would be left free to domineer over the world and Russia be unable to work out her destiny, her ambitions with a free hand.

It was when Lord Palmerston, Prime Minister of England, hand in hand with Napoleon III., Emperor of France, was on the point of recognizing the independence of the southern states as a first step to active intervention on their behalf, that a Russian fleet appeared in New York harbor and Alexander II. served notice upon the British and French ministers that any such action would be resented by Russia, that if Britain and France chose to espouse the cause of the Confederacy, chose to interfere in the struggle between the states with the view of dismembering the American Union, well and good, but he warned them that in that event they would have to consider Russia to be their enemy. And with this warning they desisted.

Such were the great acts of Alexander II.'s reign, what he himself considered to be his great acts, his acts most deserving of credit, requiring greatest tact and courage to successfully carry out. But the task that his grandson has set for himself in his appeal for the disarmament of Europe is equally great; he has set for himself as high an ideal as his grandsire set for himself when he resolved on the emancipation of the serfs. The greatest

curse that blights the people of Europe to-day, that drains their resources, crushes them under tax burdens, depletes their ability to produce wealth and so pay the increasing taxes, that stands in the way of progress and happiness, that fills their cup of life with bitter tears, is that of militarism. And this the young Emperor sets himself to remove. The task he has set for himself is most worthy, but as difficult of accomplishment as it is worthy, so difficult indeed that it does not seem possible that he can succeed.

If Europe could agree to live up to Christian principles it would have no need of standing armies, but this seems to be impossible for Europe's rulers. Indeed we are quite convinced that it is impossible for the countries of Europe as ruled to-day to so agree for those rulers hold their places, their power, their wealth, by a very denial of the first precepts of Christianity, the equality and brotherhood of man, and by the assertion of a doctrine foreign to Christianity, a doctrine that some men are born into the world with a God given right to rule and despoil, a right to despoil the common people for the support of courts, despoil the many that the few may live in luxury. To our mind the very assertion of such doctrine is sacrilege, for it is a doctrine of Mammon not of Christianity. Therefore, Europe's rulers cannot be expected to live up to Christian principles for the observance of such principles would require them to step down and off their thrones.

The establishment of universal republican rule, of rule by the many and not by the few, by the law of right not by might must precede universal disarmament. We do not mean to say that while existing forms of government last, present armaments cannot be reduced to the infinite benefit of the people of the world who now bear the burdens of crushing armaments, but so long as there is a ruling class that lives not by toil, not by industry, but by sapping the fruits of other's toil, that class will feel the need of a standing army, of the strong arm to protect it and hold the despoiled in subjection. So it is natural that standing armies should continue to exist while such rulers continue to rule. Indeed it is inevitable and disarmament in the sense of complete disarmament is out of the question.

But there is a degree of disarmament short of this, and at which the Emperor aims. Indeed, complete disarmament is not to be desired at this time. The fact is that if all men could be depended upon to live up to the precepts of Christianity there would be no need of standing armies or police force. But as men are imperfect, as some are unable to withstand the temptation of despoiling their neighbors there must be a force to constrain them to live up to the precepts of Christ. So the need of a police force. And as men in their collective capacity as nations are much like men in their individual capacity, as they have a hankering disposition to aggrandize themselves by despoiling, a disposition to despoil a wealthy people if they believe they can do so with immunity from punishment it follows that nations, from a true regard for their own interests must keep up some armament, some military and naval force.

So the need of an army and navy and the greater the danger of foreign aggression, the greater the armament of one's neighbors, and hence the greater their ability to despoil the greater is that need. Thus it is that the nations of Europe have felt the need of greater armaments than we have with our natural bulwark of 3,000 miles of water. But the rulers who rule to despoil their own people have another reason than national defense for an army and that is for defense against their own subjects. The more free the government the less the need for an army for home use, the more despotic and tyrannical the government the greater the need. But finally, and as we have already pointed out, the greater part of the increased European armament of the past generation has grown out of rivalry between countries and grown out of the disposition of one country or the rulers of one country to despoil another.



But as this rivalry is deep-seated, as the mutual suspicions, [born of the feeling that the aim of those who support a useless court by despoiling a people must be to further aggrandize themselves by using the nation over whom they rule to make aggressions upon its neighbors if they lay themselves open to attack], are general and seemingly ineradicable the prospects of disarmament appear to be slight. Yet all that the Russian Emperor says of the crushing burdens, indeed, the dangers of keeping up such armaments, is unquestionably true, and the reasons he gives for disarmament are unassailable.

Indeed, the very salvation of Europe from falling into a rut of retrogression would seem to be dependent on disarmament. As the Czar has caused it to be written, the financial charges of keeping up the present armaments "strike at the very root of public prosperity. The intellectual and physical strength of the nations' labor and capital are mostly diverted from their natural application and are unproductively consumed. Hundreds of millions are devoted to acquiring terrible engines of destruction, which, though to-day regarded as the last work of science, are destined to-morrow to lose all their value in consequence of some fresh discovery in the same field. National culture, economic progress and the production of wealth are either paralyzed or checked in development."

Ominous words are these, but true. And this appeal of an autocrat on behalf of humanity, on behalf of his own people, on behalf of the whole of Europe, an appeal that all Europe agree to rid itself of its oppressive, crushing armaments that Russia may dare to disarm, that he may do for the Russian people that which he feels they need, that other rulers feeling likewise, but in the same fix, that is fearing to disarm unless their neighbors do, may do likewise, then runs on as follows:

"The economic crisis, due in great part to the system of armaments a l'outrance, and the continual danger which lies in this massing of war material, are transferring the armed peace of our days into a crushing burden which the peoples have more and more difficulty in bearing."

And then comes a paragraph upon which those may seize who prefer to believe that the Czar is prompted to his appeal for disarmament, not by any feeling of humanity, of well-wishing for his fellow-men, but from mere selfishness, a fear that in such armaments there is danger to monarchical government, to his throne, a paragraph from which it is evident that he recognizes the crushing burdens necessitated to keep up the present armaments, must drive the people who bear them to desperation, to protest, to revolt and bring on the very cataclysm that some believe they are averting in building, creating such armaments. But clearly such armaments are overstepping the mark; they are being made so oppressive as to be positively dangerous to established government. The appeal of the Emperor reads:

"It appears evident that if this state of things were to be prolonged it would inevitably lead to the very cataclysm it is desired to avert, and the horrors whereof make every thinking being shudder in advance."

#### Measure of the Military Curse in Dollars and Cents.

The terrible tax of the present armaments on industry, on progress; the appalling hindrance to the accumulation of wealth is hard to measure. But it is worth while to strive to do so that we may in some small degree grasp the magnitude of the tax. M. Edmond Théry, editor of *L'Economiste Européen*, recently collated some striking figures, showing the increase in European armaments and the burden of keeping them up during the past thirty years and upon these figures we draw. He shows that the budgets or appropriations granted to cover the estimated expenditures of the war and navy departments of the European countries, exclusive of the countries of the Scandinavian, Spanish and Turkish peninsulas, aggregated, for the year 1865-66, the sum

of 2,574,200,000 francs, or the equivalent of \$496,800,000. During the next five years, or the five years preceding the Franco-German war, the war establishments of Europe, excepting those of the North German Confederation, were not increased, and the sums directly granted for the support of the armies and navies in the countries of Europe, excepting those countries already mentioned as omitted from the calculations, footed up in the year 1869-70 to 2,620,600,000 francs or \$505,775,000. But in the five years following the Franco-German war, there came great increase in the military establishments all over Europe and the expenses of maintenance for the year 1874-75, and as shown by the official budgets, increased to 3,264,100,000 francs, or about \$629,970,000. But the period of great and rapid military expansion was just inaugurated. France added enormously to her military and naval establishments and the expenditures by the countries of Europe for their military establishments, and bear in mind on a peace footing, rose for the year 1880-81 to 3,827,200,000 francs, or \$738,650,000; for the year 1886-87, under large British and Russian expansion, very considerable Austrian, Italian and German enlargements and in face of a decrease in France, to 4,221,800,000 francs, or \$814,800,000, and for the year 1897-98, principally under British and German expansion, to 4,596,500,000 francs, or \$887,125,000. And it is an interesting fact that the war establishment of Great Britain is to-day more expensive than that of any of the other powers, yet being richer, her people do not feel it so grievously.

Such is the sum of money that appears to be taxed from the people of Europe and spent in the keeping up of the armies and navies of the respective countries. But it is to be remarked that the actual costs of the marine and military establishments have exceeded the sums named in the official budgets, first, for the reason that the expenditures have generally exceeded the budget estimates and been covered by supplementary budgets or appropriations not appearing in the official, and second, because the costs of many railroads, purely strategic, constructed with a sole view to national defense, have not been included in the military budgets.

But this aside it appears that the peoples of Europe are taxed to the amount of nearly \$900,000,000 a year for the support of armies and navies and taxed on this account about \$400,000,000 more than they were thirty years ago. But this tax only represents a part, and the lesser part of the crushing burden put upon industry by the maintenance of the great armaments. In 1875 the standing armies of Europe, omitting those countries already excepted, aggregated 2,664,548 men, in 1897, 3,121,430. Men to this number were actually in the armies the whole year round, kept from employing their labor productively. Consequently the labor of three million and more of men is annually wasted. And M. Théry estimates that these men would if not in the army produce wealth to an average value of six francs a day for each working day. This does not mean that their wages would average six francs a day but that they would produce that much wealth, part of which would go to pay taxes and interest, part go to swell the profits of the employer, part go to pay wages. As the average wealth production of the American workman is three times the above, the estimate of M. Théry seems moderate and on a basis of Mulhall's tables of statistics M. Théry's estimate must be considered so. But taking this estimate of six francs as the value of every working day lost by a country through the enlistment of its workingmen in its armies, and estimating on three hundred working days to the year, we have an annual loss in productive power of 1,800 francs for every soldier enlisted under the colors. And for 3,121,430 men so enlisted this works out a stupendous loss, works out a loss of 5,618,574,000 francs or \$1,084,385,000.

But as great as this loss is it is far from all. While there are 3,121,430 men under arms permanently on a peace footing and taken out of productive pursuits the whole year round, the



number of men recruited for a war footing and who are periodically called into camp for drill and of course forced to throw down their productive pursuits numbered, in 1897, no less than 19,682,709 men, an increase over the war footing of 1875, of 11,781,509 men. Obviously those days that these reserve forces give to drilling and training are days lost. A diminution in the national productive force to the extent of \$50 from the enforced idleness of each of these reserve soldiers would seem to be moderate. And as these reserve forces do not include the immense territorial army of Russia known as the army of defense it is probable that to the loss in the production of wealth from the maintenance of a permanent standing army of 3,121,430 men, idle from a productive point all the year round, must be added the loss from the reserve army of 19,682,709 men who are withdrawn from their productive pursuits for some part of each year, a loss in wealth production that it would take at least a billion dollars to represent. So we have the annual costs to Europe of her armaments about as follows.

Costs of maintenance, military and marine establishments . . . . .	\$887,125,000
Loss in productive force on permanent army . . . . .	1,084,385,000
"    "    on reserve forces . . . . .	1,000,000,000
Total loss . . . . .	\$2,971,510,000

And this does not cover the full loss, for reasons we have mentioned and also for the reason that, lacking definite statistics, we have made no allowance for loss in the production of wealth from the withdrawal of the men enlisted in the navies from productive pursuits.

Thus have the maintenance of these great armaments caused an increase in taxation and a decrease in the power to produce wealth and pay taxes. Well may the European powers stop and question if they have not weakened rather than strengthened their military power, their power to defend their national integrity, by such costly armaments. Three billions a year now lost in maintaining armaments, and that would be added to Europe's wealth annually if it were not for such armaments, is something terrible to contemplate, an appalling drain on national resources to keep prepared for war, so that it may well be asked if the loss, the weakness in war because of such drain would not be greater than the added strength, the gain from being prepared? If any nation of Europe could be assured of twenty years of peace, the answer would be yes, that it could better afford to confront war with its greater resources and without armies trained down as machines than it could with such developed fighting machines but terribly depleted resources, an impoverished and despondent people, and consequent diminished patriotism. Of two nations starting out together, the one wedding itself to militarism would not come out on top.

But such assurance cannot be given. The dubious fact is ever present before the European powers to spur them on their mad race for armament, the fear that the nation that does not arm will be at once pounced upon and destroyed by those that do. So, unless there can come universal disarmament, the disarmament so much needed cannot come. No wonder the cry, the appeal of the Russian Emperor for such disarmament, but the chances that it will be listened to, responded to, are woefully slim. The chances are that the dreaded cataclysm, an uprising of the burdened people, an unreasoning destruction of property and spilling of blood, an overturning of thrones will come first, a cataclysm that will sweep out armies and thrones in one terrible wave of destruction and blood. And perhaps it is for the best that the disarmament should so come.

What do we live for if it is not to make life less difficult to each other.—*George Eliot.*

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There is as much greatness of mind in acknowledging a good turn as in doing it.—*Seneca.*

## OUR CANADIAN RELATIONS.

FROM the standpoint of the protectionist there is no reason for the imposition of tariff duties on importations from Canada into the United States, no good reason why trade between New York and Ottawa should not be as free as trade between New York and Pennsylvania. It would be mutually advantageous if it were so, if there were no customs line to hinder the interchange of commodities between the two countries. Such free interchange of commodities, the utter abolishment of customs houses along our Canadian border we would gladly work for, but a treaty of reciprocity falling short of this is a very different matter. Indeed, a reciprocity treaty is urged on very different ground, urged not on sound, economic grounds, but on false, and to a reciprocity treaty of such a nature as is generally contemplated we would lend no encouragement but throw cold water.

The abolishment of the custom houses along our northern border we would urge on the ground that the free interchange of commodities would be mutually advantageous, that both peoples would gain from such interchange and gain equally as buyers and as sellers. But reciprocity, as suggested, rests on the idea that in the exchange of commodities it is the seller alone that profits, that consequently the interests of buyer and seller are not mutual, that from increasing our purchases from Canada we must lose, that by increasing our sales we must gain, that, *per se*, the interests of Canada are just the opposite of ours, and that therefore a reciprocity treaty must be the result of a dicker in which each party thereto strives to and believes it has got the best of the other, gained more by extending the markets for its goods than it has lost by opening its own markets.

And clearly a reciprocity arrangement approached upon this mistaken basis cannot be mutually satisfactory. If it works as expected, evidently one people must lose what the other gains. And in such trade there is obviously no net gain, no profit in the exchange of commodities and it would be better if such exchange did not take place. Therefore, we have little patience with those who put forth so-called reciprocity propositions in the belief that by the acceptance of such propositions they would get the best of their neighbors, but that can only find acceptance if those neighbors are under the contrary belief. There is only one true way for a country to get rich and prosper and that is by producing wealth, not by getting the best of its neighbors in trade.

The notion that trade is one grand scheme of cheat, that it has its support not in mutual profit, but in profit derived by one party to the trade at the cost of the other and that, therefore, there is no net gain in trade, is so absurd that it is hard to believe that it should find any acceptance. Yet just such notion is held by many of our advocates of Canadian reciprocity, it is with such absurd idea that they would approach the building of a reciprocity treaty. Canadian advocates of reciprocity approaching the subject in the same spirit the result must be mutual distrust and suspicion. It is petty treatment of great interests.

From the exchange of commodities both parties to the trade should gain. It is indeed on mutual profit that trade and commerce rests. If two families, living quite independently of each other, each producing by its own unaided exertions all that it consumes, discover that by uniting their exertions, dividing their labor and the fruits thereof they can produce more wealth and live in greater comfort, it is evidently to their advantage to do so.

As soon as labor is divided to the end of increasing its productiveness, each family, each unit in society, ceases to be self dependent. Labor being subdivided and each man devoting himself to the production of one particular product or general line of material, it follows that he will produce more of such goods than he can himself consume. The surplus he must exchange for the surplus products of others and thus supply himself with his needs. To make this exchange will of course cost some



effort, some labor. The labor thus spent of necessity diminishes the time that can be given to the production of wealth. But if the increased productiveness of labor coming with the division of labor is greater than the loss of productiveness consequent on the expenditure of labor in effecting the exchange it is obvious that such division of labor and such exchange as makes possible such division, is a net gain to society. In other words, where each man devoting himself to one kind of industry and producing a surplus can exchange that surplus for a greater quantity of other commodities which he may desire than he could obtain if instead of devoting himself to one kind of work and producing a surplus beyond his own needs he undertook to directly fill all his own wants, such exchange is advantageous to him. And in such exchange he must appear both as seller and buyer, he must sell the fruits of his own labor for the fruits of other's labor. He sells and buys merely because by devoting himself to one kind of work and producing a surplus which he can exchange for the surplus fruits of other labor he can live better than if he undertook to raise or make for himself everything he used. So the profit in the exchange of commodities, a profit that is mutual. By such dividing up of employments and exchange of surplus products, labor is enabled to produce more wealth and produce more than is wasted by the time and labor lost in effecting exchanges. Therefore in such exchange there is a gain to mankind.

Such exchange of commodities is for convenience effected through means of a token, a counter, a unit of account that in the United States is known as the dollar. But though we sell commodities in terms of dollars let it be borne in mind that we do not really give commodities for the printed slips of paper or stamped disks of silver or gold that go by the name of dollars. Those slips of paper and metal disks are really drafts on all the storekeepers and shopkeepers in the United States, drafts that in effect state that the bearer has rendered a dollar's worth of services to society, produced and parted with a dollar's worth of goods, the surplus fruits of his labor, and that he is entitled to a dollar's worth of goods, the surplus fruits of other's labor from society in return. And it is because these dollars are drafts on the storekeepers and shopkeepers that we accept such dollars in payment for our commodities. We accept them merely because they afford a convenient medium by which one may exchange the surplus products of his own labor for the surplus products of others, a medium which being itself subdivisible enables us to buy commodities in the quantities wanted and at the time when wanted. Those dollars in one's hands are certificates that one has rendered a service to society for which society is owing a service in return, and certificates that society will honor at any time and any place. Such is the nature of money.

So when we sell a commodity for money we merely sell it for a draft that will be honored by all storekeepers and shopkeepers of our land and entitling us to other commodities. And as our services to society are greater, as we produce more wealth when subdividing our labor and devoting ourselves to particular tasks it follows that those drafts, which represent the value of our services rendered to society, are of greater value than our labor would be if not thus subdivided and call for a greater quantity of commodities than we could hope to produce by individual effort. Therefore our gain, and to divide the gain derived from selling and buying is impossible, for selling and buying are but parts of the same profitable transaction, the exchange of the surplus fruits of our labor for a greater quantity of wealth than we could get by devoting that part of our labor now given to producing a surplus to the production of such articles as we buy.

It is this mutual profit that is the foundation of trade and commerce. But it is unfortunately true that much trade is conducted on the get-rich-quick principle of striving to despoil those with whom one trades, the principle of monopoly which is to

take to monopoly all the profits of exchange, despoil the seller and purchaser of the mutual profit that should come from the diversification of employments, the consequent production of surplus fruits of labor and the exchange of such surplus. Monopoly accomplishes this by putting such a tax upon exchange of commodities as to more than absorb the increased production of wealth growing out of the division of labor and its consequent increased productiveness. Thus monopoly, where it is industrial, as the Standard Oil or Sugar Trust, squeezes from the seller by pressing down the prices paid for raw material, and from the purchaser by the charge of exorbitant prices. And when the monopoly is that of transportation the squeezing is accomplished by the charge of unreasonable freight rates; when working through money by squeezing down prices and thus turning the profits of industry into the pockets of the creditor classes.

The inevitable result of thus diminishing if not destroying the mutual profitableness of the diversification of industries and the exchange of commodities must be to discourage such diversification, such exchange, lead to industrial stagnation, to trade paralysis, for it does in effect undermine the very foundations of trade and commerce.

It is the duty of nations to protect themselves against such monopolies, whether industrial or transportation or financial, whether foreign or domestic, to encourage that diversification of employments, that free exchange of products that is the sure path to wealth and greatness. And clearly whatever product any people can produce for themselves at a smaller expenditure of labor than such product may be produced and imported from abroad it is to their advantage to produce that product, their loss to import, and under natural conditions such product would not long continue to be imported. But conditions are not always free and equal, and so it happens that what is known as free trade is often not free trade at all, but trade warped and turned into profitless channels by artificial hindrances. And to remove such hindrances or neutralize them, protective tariffs, themselves too often abused, have been raised.

Such hindrances are raised by centralized capital and naturally such accumulations of capital are largest in the hands of those industries long established in the older countries of the world. So against the old countries of Europe the newly settled countries have generally raised protective tariffs, raised them to combat monopoly, raised them to free themselves from the necessity of selling in a distant market and buying in a distant market.

Thus did the United States raise a protective tariff. The economists of the protectionist school taught that whatever product our people could produce at a less expenditure of labor than would be spent in producing it abroad and bringing it to us, it would be to our advantage to produce at home, and that producers of such products should be protected against any unnatural and unhealthy foreign competition. In short, they held that the artificial advantages possessed by foreign countries should not be permitted to drive trade out of its natural and therefore most profitable channels. So they held that the fact that labor had been ground down in Europe, should not be permitted to give to European producers any advantage in competition with our producers; so they held that a war of underselling pressed by the European manufacturers of large accumulations of capital, a war in which our producers of smaller capital would, unaided, go under, a war forced with the purpose of keeping a monopoly of our markets and then reimbursing for the costs of the war of underselling by the charge of extortionate prices, should not be tolerated, and to prevent such underselling, to prevent such artificial competition, a competition with the result of momentarily putting prices down to the American consumer, but putting them up in the end and to equalize differences in wages, protective tariff duties were imposed. Thus by the artificial was the artificial destroyed and industry permitted to develop in natural channels. But clearly we need no such protection against Canada.



What products we cannot produce in the United States with as small an expenditure of labor as they can be produced elsewhere and transported to our shores it is, on the other hand, very obviously to our advantage to import. This have economists of the protectionist school taught and so opposed all tariff duties on such commodities as our country is not qualified to produce. So all this teaches that trade between countries of different latitude should be free, for it is in such direction that trade should naturally develop, between countries of different climate and consequently of different natural resources. Therefore it is that from the protectionist standpoint trade between Canada and the United States should be free. It is only from the standpoint of the protectionist who is protectionist from selfishness and not from principle, who looks upon the tariff not as a means to equalize artificial barriers, stimulate the diversification of employments and the interchange of commodities but as a means to unduly raise prices and despoil the American consumer that such trade should not be free. And the protectionists of this stamp are not deserving of attention.

But, unfortunately, such protectionists are listened to, are heeded, are represented and well represented on the Joint Commission having under consideration the relations of the United States and Canada. Therefore if the question of general trade relations is taken up we may be assured that it will be approached in a petty spirit, in the spirit of bargain and sale and in the belief that we can profit by selling to Canada but cannot profit by buying from Canada. And it is too much to hope that any mutually satisfactory arrangement can be arrived at when approached from such false ground. We repeat, the interchange of goods should be mutually profitable or there should be no interchange. We say more, there can be no permanent interchange of goods that is not so profitable. Any trade that is not so, that is one-sided, that impoverishes one party to it must sooner or later dry up. But between Canada and the United States there should, in the natural order of things, be a mutually advantageous exchange of products and it is a loss to both peoples to put tariff hindrances in the way of such trade. From such hindrances nothing is gained for they are not required to neutralize artificial advantages that one people have over the other. Such advantages do not exist. Therefore the abolishment of the customs line between the two would be a mutual advantage.

But no reciprocity treaty framed on the false idea that we have much to gain by selling to Canada but nothing to gain by buying from her, can be mutually satisfactory and advantageous. The truth is we have much to gain by buying more extensively from and selling more extensively to Canada and Newfoundland. And so has Canada much to gain by extending such trade with us. A tariff on imports of coal into Canada such as places a hindrance on Montreal and Ottawa getting their coal from the nearest mines which are in Ohio and Pennsylvania and causing them to look to the Nova Scotian mines, twice the distance off, is nothing less than a tax upon industry, upon the accumulation of wealth in the province of Ottawa for it is a turning of trade into unnatural and wasteful channels. And so is the tariff on the importation of coal into the United States that causes the people of Maine to look to the coal fields of Pennsylvania and Virginia rather than to the much nearer fields of Nova Scotia for their coal a tax on the people of Maine, a tax upon society for it leads to wasted labor.

So from free trade in coal between Canada and the United States the people of both countries would mutually gain and both as producers and as consumers. Coal of both countries finding nearer markets could be sold at lower prices, for the waste on transportation would be less and still bring a better price to the producers. And cheaper coal to the consumer would no doubt bring increased consumption and so increased demand.

Again is the tariff on importations of iron into Canada nothing less than a hindrance to the accumulation of wealth

in Canada, for iron cannot be made in Canada at anything like the labor cost that it can in Pennsylvania, and so to encourage Canadians to make their own iron is simply to encourage the development of industry in unnatural and hence wasteful channels. So on the other hand are the duties we place on imports of lumber nothing less than a tax on our own people and simply serve to enable the owners of the much restricted timber tracts of the United States to profit at the expense of our people at large and so hasten the deforesting of our lands which is something not at all to be desired. Besides, such duties cause the transportation of timber unnecessary distances. Where markets for lumber in the United States are nearer the Canadian timber tracts than our own it would be to our advantage to buy in Canada. The tariff that hinders such trade leads to a drain on more distant sources of timber supply in the United States and hence waste of labor in transportation. What is more, it leads to the cutting of trees not yet ripe for the woodsman's axe and the use of inferior timber and is therefore doubly injurious and wasteful.

To the abolishment of the customs barriers between the United States and Canada there would, no doubt, be great outcry on the ground that it would subject our farmers to the competition of Canadian grain. But the truth is they now meet this competition, they sell their grain in competition with Canadian grain, to say nothing of the grain of all surplus grain-producing countries of the world. In short, we produce a surplus of grain, Canada produces a surplus of grain, and such surplus is marketed in Great Britain, and there, under free competition, the price is made. And the price on the American and Canadian farm is the Liverpool price less the costs of transporting the grain to Liverpool. Consequently, the price of grain on both sides of the border, being fixed in the same market, is approximately the same. Therefore, the removal of the tariff duties on grain would not lead to increased competition.

We repeat there is no good reason why trade between Canada and the United States should not be as free as trade between the states of the American Union. The way to solve the question of our trade relations with Canada is the establishment of a customs union, the abolishment of customs houses between the two countries. It would be a solution mutually satisfactory, mutually advantageous, for by nature and by heritage the two peoples are economically one.

But such solution of the question is not even thought of at this time. It is for the time being quite out of the question. Yet there is no other way in which it can be satisfactorily and, therefore, permanently solved. Until it is so settled it will never be settled. What the Canadian Commissioners will propose with a view to extending trade with the United States and what our commissioners will feel like accepting, if they feel like accepting anything, is a question. But under the provisions of the Dingley tariff our commissioners might make very considerable and general concessions in tariff rates, subject, of course, to the approval of the United States Senate, before which any treaty they may draw up must go. Thus the Dingley tariff provides that whenever the President, by and with the advice of the Senate and with a view to securing reciprocal trade with foreign countries, may deem it to be to the interest of the United States, may enter into a treaty providing for the reduction of duties specified in the Dingley act and for a period of not more than five years, to the extent of not more than 20 per cent. thereof and also for the placing on the free list of such commodities as were on the free list under the previous tariff. The same section of the Dingley act also authorizes and for a similar purpose the transfer to the free list of any articles that are not the natural products of the United States. But this latter provision would hardly be applicable to our trade with Canada. Under the provisions that are applicable, however, timber might be restored to the free list as it was under the Wilson act.



The trade of the United States with Canada has undergone vast changes in the last ten years. In 1888 our imports from Canada exceeded our exports to Canada by about six million dollars, in the fiscal year 1898 our exports to Canada exceeded our imports from Canada by fifty-one millions, our exports more than doubling in ten years from \$37,245,119 worth to \$82,854,947, and our imports falling off by more than one-fourth in value or from \$43,084,123 to \$31,642,312. During the same period Canadian trade with Great Britain fluctuated in just the opposite direction, exports to Great Britain about doubling and imports from Britain falling off by twenty per cent. Statistics for the Canadian British trade for a later period than the calendar year 1896 are not at hand, but a comparison of the returns for that year with 1888 will show the general trend of trade, show an increase in exports from \$45,000,000 in 1888 to \$80,000,000 in 1896, a decline in imports from \$43,000,000 to \$33,000,000.

Seizing these facts, Sir Wilfred Laurier, when the elections of a couple of years ago gave his party control of the Canadian Parliament and made him premier, resolved to trade upon them, and he forthwith offered to discriminate against importations of American goods and in favor of British goods and thus make an extended market for British goods in Canada, if the British Government would discriminate against American grain in the United Kingdom and thus make an extended market for Canadian produce. Thus, at our expense he proposed to increase the market for British goods in Canada and for Canadian goods in Britain. And to show his earnestness he piloted a new tariff measure through the Canadian Parliament, which is now in effect and under which British goods find an entrance into Canada upon payment of duties 25 per cent. lower than the rates on importations from the United States. The same reduction is extended to imports of goods from all parts of the British empire.

Thus just before leaving for England a year ago to take part in the Victorian jubilee, Sir Wilfred made this forward step towards an Imperial Customs Union, such as would unite the British empire with bands of trade. The British Government responded by going so far as to abrogate the trade treaties with Germany and Belgium under which Britain was bound to permit the importation of goods from those countries upon an exact equality with goods from other foreign countries or her colonies. Those treaties of course inhibited, while they stood, the imposition of discriminating duties by Great Britain in favor of Canadian and other colonial produce. But further than the abrogation of these two treaties the British Government has not gone, and so Canada has not been given favors in Great Britain in return for favors she has granted.

Forseeing this, Sir Wilfred, Frenchman and Catholic as he is, yet ruler of a British and Protestant colony, had it written into his tariff that the 25 per cent. reduction on duties allowed on imports from Britain would be extended to any country offering a similar reduction of tariff rates on importations of Dominion produce. Thus was written into this Canadian tariff a bait and a threat for us, a threat that our goods would be discriminated against in favor of British if we did not offer tariff favors to Canada, a bait that our goods would find entrance into Canada on an equality with British if we did grant reduction in our tariff rates in favor of Canadian produce. But such threat, though it has been acted up to and such bait have so far failed to effect us and in spite of the discrimination against our products and in favor of British our sales of products to Canada have gone on increasing. So it appears that the discrimination is not going to change the course of Canadian trade though it is yet too early to predict the ultimate result.

Such is the situation as it stands to-day, such is the question of discrimination and tariff favors as it will come before the Joint Commission, but that the commission will solve it, the Canadian commissioners offering the reductions authorized under

the Canadian tariff and our commissioners the reductions in tariff rates provided for in the reciprocity clauses of the Dingley tariff, is extremely improbable. Indeed, even if such agreement was come to it would not be any permanent solution of the question at all, for no question can be settled until it is settled right, and the only way to settle this question is to abolish the customs houses between Canada and the United States.

## PEOPLES PARTY NOTES.

WE CLIP the following endorsement of the Cincinnati Convention and the nomination of candidates **From** subject to the approval of a referendum vote **Captain Burkitt.** from Captain Burkitt's paper, the *Peoples Messenger*, Okolona, Miss., of August 24th:

"Tom Watson endorses in the most unqualified manner the call for a national convention at Cincinnati September 5th, and approves Wharton Barker's idea to make a nomination subject to the ratification of 'the boys in the trenches.'"

"If they approve, the nominations stand, if not another convention will be called to make a selection of candidates that will be satisfactory to the rank and file. This would be party government by the voters and carried out to a successful conclusion would constitute in fact a government of the people, for the people and by the people. God speed the day!"

### Missouri Sentiment.

THE POPULISTS of the Second Congressional District of Missouri met in delegate convention at Laclede, August 18th, and adopted the following resolutions:

We endorse the Omaha platform and favor adding thereto the initiative, referendum and imperative mandate, as the first plank.

We endorse the call for the Cincinnati convention, and advise that the convention nominate candidates for President and Vice-President in blank and provide for a referendum vote of the party. \* \* \* \*

We believe that fusion can only work the destruction of the Peoples party. Therefore we are opposed to it under all circumstances.

The convention nominated Hugh Tudor for Congress by acclamation, and elected him and W. W. Moore, both of Livingston county, delegates to Cincinnati.

### Life in New Jersey.

FROM Vineland, N. J., on August 26th, Hon. John J. Street-er, Acting Deputy National Organization Committee, issued a call to all true Populists of New Jersey to meet in convention at Vineland, on Saturday, September 3d. The call set forth that "matters of great importance to the growth of Populistic reform in this state will come before the convention" that "delegates to the National Convention of Populists to be held at Cincinnati, Ohio, September 5, 1898, are to be chosen" and appealed to "every true and earnest Populist who is opposed to all future fusion folly to attend this convention."

THE Populists of White county, Indiana, met in convention at Monticello, Indiana, on last Saturday, nominated candidates for county offices, to be voted for next November, and chose two delegates to represent the county at the Cincinnati convention.

SOME time since the fusionists won a victory in the Idaho State Committee by revoking the call for the State Populist convention to meet at an independent place and time and substituting a call for the convention to meet in Boise City upon the same date as the Democratic and Silver Republican conventions. But the fusionists failed to domineer the Populist convention, and after four days of dicker the Democrats and Silver Republicans declared all negotiations with the Populists off, and on August 28th, divided all the places on the fusion ticket among themselves and left the Populists to shift for themselves. The Populist convention then split into two factions and two tickets claiming to be Populist have been put in the field.



## BOOK REVIEWS.

## Some Pros and Cons Touching Manila.

*Yesterdays in the Philippines.* By JOSEPH EARLE STEVENS. Illustrated. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.

What would ordinarily come as a racy book describing life in an out-of-the-way corner of the globe, now takes on the importance of a new guide book. Mr. Stevens may congratulate himself on his good fortune, first, in finding so rich a mine and, next, on the enhancement of its value by the war. His yesterdays derive their higher interest from the fact that they foreshadow the to-morrows of a good many Americans if not the nation's. Apart from this it is one of the most enjoyable books of its kind that have appeared in years. The writer wielding an unusually sparkling pen for a Bostonian, went out to Manila in 1893 for a business house, and lived there for two years. Himself and his friend "were the representatives of the only American house doing business in the Philippines, and made up practically fifty per cent. of the American business colony in Manila." In the light of last May day's fireworks, this looks remarkable, particularly so when it turns out that the solitary American house of business had to quit the city two years later, as revolution was in the air, and entrust their affairs to one of the English houses. Table turning as a bewildering feat is a characteristic American product. The lonely pair found home solaces and a welcome in the English club. These letters tell much that we are eager to know about the practical conditions of life as it is lived out there. The usual travel book gives passing impressions and attempts fine but hopeless pictures of scenery. Instead of this we get detailed information, sprinkled haphazard through the book, of all the little items which make up the grand total of two years' experiences of a sharp witted bachelor in housekeeping. Without laboring it he manages to convey a clear notion of the working of Spanish rule over the mixed races, and in spite of the exuberant jollity which pervades his book and doubtless made life in Manila endurable to a cultured Bostonian, he contributes a singularly valuable budget of the very facts most essential to be known at this critical time.

First, as to mode and cost of living as concerning the American resident in Manila. He finds himself one of a population of 350,000, of whom there are 50,000 Chinese, 5,000 Spaniards, 150 Germans, 90 English, and those 4 lonely Americans. This was five years ago; in five more these figures may have to be reversed, who knows? The rest are mestizos, half castes of the Malay type. The old city has thick-walled houses, defiant of earthquakes; the modern side has chosen galvanized iron houses and mud huts, the inner walls of cloth. Your mansion may be blown miles away, while the piano remains to mark the site of the dear old home. This happened to a friend of the author. The outer windows are of opaque shells, and slide like wall panels. You lay in a stock of twelve suits of clothes, well made to measure, white duck or sheeting, costing \$2.50 the suit. You hire a "boy" as factotum for the high wage of \$4.50 a month, which includes sundry services by his wife and family, who live in the out-houses in your back garden. For \$100 you buy a high-stepping pony, coach, and a model coachman. The author shared a house with two others and their total expenditures, living in high style, only averaged \$29 each per month, less than \$1 a day. As to social tone, "we had a new arrival in the person of a young Englishman who came fresh from Britain. Someone had stuffed him with tales of indolent life in the Far East, for he came in to his first dinner at the club clad only in pajamas and green carpet slippers!" Be it known that Society is Society in Paris, Vienna, Berlin and Manila. These pages reek with glowing accounts of receptions, dinners, dances, promenades, etiquette for exquisites of both sexes and visions of costume glory that will dazzle the wits of a tailor-made dude. With all this, it is confusing to learn that "if one lived at home in the same style the bills would be at least ten times as large. . . . Business is done on a more social scale than at home, and the lowest English clerk in the large houses feels that he must enter into the free and easy expenditure of his better-paid chief. After office hours everyone stands on the same social plane and all business talk is tabooed. The office boy often calls his lord and master 'Bill,' and frequently has a better looking horse and carriage." We incline to recommend that the new Minister of the Interior be appointed from Boston, who shall frown down this dangerous democracy.

Purchasing in the stores is a very pleasant pastime, as you have only to hand over a little I. O. U. for the amount. Its shadier aspect appears when the collector wheels his barrow to

your front door for the silver dollars at the month's end. Cigarettes are fifteen for a cent, and as the best cigar costs five, few go in for so extravagant a luxury. Every native owns a fighting cock, and as these live in the lower rooms, you enjoy their society most of the time and their music in the early morn. The chinks in Manila floors are purposely wide. Our author slept—as all do—in mosquito netting, yet he saw fewer in Manila than in the United States, not more than six in two years. Paradise indeed. You are willing to put up with a few trifling annoyances if only you are free from the bloodsucking trumpeter. A visible foe is comparatively welcome, so it is nice to read how "one sees a good many lizards hanging to the walls or walking on the ceilings, but it is one of our highest intellectual pursuits to stretch out in a long chair and to go to sleep watching these enterprising bug-catchers pursuing their vocation. And now and then will drop on your face a so-called hairy caterpillar, whose promenade on your skin raises great welts that close your eyes and kindle your temper." Rats are as numerous as talented. They colonize your office drawers, dine off your most precious documents, digest the entire patent leather portions of your best boots, unfasten your candles from the sticks and devour them, and "all night they seem to be pulling boxes to and fro in the roof, taking up boards and nailing them down and having an all-round dance." You can adopt the local cure for rats if you please. "Nearly all the older bungalows in Manila possess house-snakes, huge reptiles, generally twelve or fourteen feet long and as thick as a fire-engine hose, that permanently reside up in the roof and live on the rats. These big creatures are harmless and rarely, if ever, leave their abodes." An amusing little domestic pet is the ant. You stand the legs of your furniture, including the beds, in saucers of kerosine "in order that the occupant may awake in the morning to find something of himself left. Cockroaches are almost equally fierce, and, endowed with wings, these creatures, sometimes four inches long, go sailing out of the window as you close your eyes and try to step on them." What the ants turn up their noses at these roaches find acceptable, and a heavy green mould attacks every article of clothing not already eaten, at the earliest approach of damp weather. It is cold at 75 degrees and disagreeably warm at 125. When it rains neither "it" nor you have the least consciousness of anything else, and when "it" blows, your house or street may glide into some remote parish. All mails are delayed, often for a whole month, when typhoons are all the rage. The Jesuits have a famous observatory in Manila, under Padre Faure, one of whose staff studied in Washington. Storm warnings are promptly issued, numbered in order of gravity from 1 to 8. If a ninth were to be contrived it could only fit the Day of Judgment.

General Blanco was the Governor during the author's stay, of whose gracious rule and simple manners he speaks favorably. As for sanitary and kindred blessings of civilization no Spanish administration has ever had a covetous disposition in that direction. Slops are pitched from the balconies of the best houses into the street sewer as of yore. Fevers and small-pox march through the streets like conquerors, the last foul pest leaving its marks on every native face. The native actresses whiten their faces on the stage, but we have colored stars who do the same. Religious parades are a common feature, with floats holding sacred images, bands of music, etc., strikingly like our political parades, as the pictures show. There are highly interesting descriptions of up-country scenery and life. On the whole there does not seem to be as fine an opening for our machine methods in the staple industries as might be supposed, but the author does not go sufficiently deep into the matter to be taken as an authority. It is due to him, and will prove useful to all, to present some of his views upon larger questions now under discussion.

He asks, "Are the Philippines an El Dorado? Now they are ours, do we want them? Can we run them? To all of which questions—even at the risk of being called unpatriotic—I am inclined to answer, No." They are a group of 1,400 sweltering tropical islands, victims of typhoons and earthquakes. The civilizing of eight million mongrel natives, speaking twenty languages and living on stewed grasshoppers and rice, is a task better postponed so long as our own home territory and people remain undeveloped. A number of savage tribes, naked and turbulent, inhabit vast fever-stricken jungles, requiring an elaborate military and naval machinery to lick them into the first stages of civilization. He doubts whether these islands, rich as they are, can be made to yield more than the ordinary profit on enterprise. More money has been put into gold and coal mines than has been got out of them. Sugar and tobacco are more promising, but the hemp crop is already adequate for the world's needs. The old foreign settlers are likely to benefit by the



change of rule more than new American ventures. "There are some things which we can send to the Philippines cheaper than the European manufacturers, but not many. We can send flour and some kinds of machinery, put in electric plants, build railways, but at present we cannot produce the cheap implements and the necessities required by the great bulk of poor natives at the low price which England and Germany can." The author would rather have England buy the archipelago, leaving a coal-ing port for the United States. "Then, with someone else to shoulder the burden of government and protection, we should still have all the opportunities for proving whether or not these islands are the El Dorado dreamed of in our clubs and counting rooms."

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#### An Introduction to Insect Life.

*Insect Life.* By JOHN HENRY COMSTOCK. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$2.50.

To say that this work is conceived in the spirit of true instruction and executed throughout with strict regard to the pupil's every want is safely within the truth. The author, who holds the chairs of entomology in two universities, knows from actual experience the needs of students, and that he has the knack of meeting them the plan and substance of this book amply demonstrate. Any one who has dipped ever so slightly into nature study has learned the necessity and importance of close and careful observation, and Prof. Comstock, after many years of study and original research, fully appreciates how much depends upon the student's powers of observation, and from first to last his effort in this volume is to impress upon his readers the fact that they must tune their senses and minds to the subject if they would find pleasure and profit in a study of nature. This is imperative if the work of the student is to have any scientific value, and again it depends upon this point, largely if not entirely, whether the study of entomology or any other branch of natural science is to be a work of drudgery, or a pleasure and a source of ever increasing interest. Prof. Comstock insists on actual investigation and observation on both of these grounds, and he understands how to throw out suggestions so as to arouse in the student that desire to know and learn for himself which it should be the first and constant endeavor of the teacher to implant and foster. Upon his ability to do this, more than upon anything else, knowledge even not excepted, depends the efficiency of the teacher. And of course the value of a book aiming to take the place of the teacher is as it possesses like qualities. This book admirably meets the wants of the student, whether youth or adult; it gives at once the incentive to investigation and all that the beginner will need to pursue it intelligently.

The author does not attempt in this volume to do more than open a subject so large as that of entomology. Indeed, the work treats of insect life only down to orders, describing a few of the more common species belonging to each as examples. The more noteworthy characteristics and peculiarities of each are given, and while painstaking accuracy is their feature, the reader is urged to accept them conditionally until he has himself corroborated each statement by actual observation. For this the safe recipe is, "be sure you are right and then look again." In no branch of natural science is personal research more necessary or more likely of important results than in the study of entomology, for there is comparatively so little known about the innumerable insects that inhabit the world, or any part of it, that the subject is one that offers exceptional opportunities to the careful student. Our total fund of knowledge regarding insects, though quite large in body, is exceedingly limited when measured by what is yet unknown, and therefore whatever any one writer may say in describing the class, and more particularly the species, is necessarily incomplete. This Prof. Comstock recognizes and hence his desire that every student should pursue his own investigations, using this and other books as guides more than as sources of information.

We have devoted so much space to what seems to us at once the basis and the crowning feature of this book that it is impossible to go in detail into its subject matter, but if what we have said does not create a desire to look into the book itself and with its help at the insect life which holds such an important place in the economy of nature, then we have not caught its admirable method of instruction. Certainly no one who takes up the volume seriously can fail to be interested, or close it without a feeling of having learned something, and those who are uninitiated in entomological science will find it truly a revelation. The numerous illustrations so accurate and true to life as to be

especially worthy of remark, are the work of the author's sister. One other feature, the value of which some of us can appreciate, is the dividing of scientific names for correct pronunciation.

#### BRIEFER NOTICES.

*Stories by Foreign Authors.* Two Volumes. Russian and Scandinavian. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Each, 75 cents.

It was a happy idea to gather specimen stories by popular writers in various countries. The trim little books which hold them are each adorned with an admirable portrait; the present volumes give Turgenev and Björnson. The publishers have issued one series of tales by English and another by American authors. They now devote ten volumes to the best Continental short stories, fifty-one in all, of which three have been filled by French writers, two by German, and one by Spanish. The Russians whose works make the first part of the present issues, are Turgenev, Poushkin, Gogol and Tolstoi, the four most famous fictionists of their land. The Scandinavian authors are Björnson, Aho, Goldschmidt, Kielland, and Frederika Bremer. The subjects, style and tone of these clever stories vary to suit all moods, and if one or two strike the expectant reader as somewhat tame, they represent the all-round quality of author and national literature equally with the stronger pieces. When the series is complete these neat volumes will form a capital library of short masterpieces in their class.

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*Denver, by Pen and Picture.* By THOMAS TONGE. Denver: Frank S. Thayer. 50 cents.

If the inelegantly unrepentful damsel portrayed in the frontispiece represented Denver City or Denver art the impression would be rather painful. The shrewdness of placing this as a contrast to the captivating contents, pictorial and instructive, speaks volumes for the business tact of Denver folk. No apology is needed for this handsome book—boom of a wonderful city. As the hub of the trans-Missouri country alone it ought to be better known than it is, much more so when the claim is substantiated by these statistical and other facts which predict that before long Denver will be the fourth great city. The ninety-six large pages are alternately print and pictures. The latter are excellent half-tone work and illustrate everything, including the best-looking specimens of the citizens, to show that the barber and tailor—guarantors of a perfected civilization—flourish in the land. A population of 106,713, exclusive of the suburbs; eight trunk lines running into the city every day; a manufacturing output last year of \$40,000,000; school buildings costing \$2,500,000; and 122 churches, facts of this sort have a vast meaning, but of less interest than what is told of Denver as a health resort. Colorado's famous peaks surpass those of Switzerland in extent and average elevation. The highest point inhabited in Europe is the Hospice of St. Bernard, 8,200 feet; the mining town of Leadville is 10,200 feet above sea level. The average maximum temperature of Denver City is 79.2 degrees, the average minimum 19.7. Average of rainy or snowy days, 81; average sunny days, 340. The usual dryness of the air reduces the summer heat by about 20 degrees, by comparison with more humid places. Even European doctors admit that the Colorado climate has advantages over that of Switzerland for those with feeble lungs. Vital statistics are always shaky at best, but Denver returns are quite as trustworthy as any, and they show a death rate for 1897 of only 11.24 per thousand, the lowest of any city of its size. Deducting deaths of consumptives from other places the rate falls to 9.34. The dominant impression after reading the remarkable story of this uniquely bound book is that so happy and flourishing a folk as the Denverites can never wish to die, but their troubles commence when they do, as they cannot if they would.

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*The Continental Dragoon.* By ROBERT NEILSON STEPHENS. Illustrated. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.

No wonder that so great a host of Revolutionary and Colonial novels has invaded our libraries these nine years since the Centennial celebration revived interest in that picturesque period. The field has not been ploughed over even yet. There are signs foreboding at least one novel to each family whose ancestors had any prominence in those times. Historic scenes and scenery have been industriously worked up already. When the appetite for these historical romances falls off, it will be found possible to form goodly libraries consisting of these books only, and whoever shall read them all, chronologically and in every systematic



## Wanamaker's.

Eyes are treasures.

Measure them by diamonds of equal size—priceless as they may be—and who will exchange them?

You would not risk losing the diamonds; yet eyesight is slipping away from thousands of precious eyes because of neglect—procrastination.

Do the eyes blur at times? Do they hurt after reading? Are there frequent headaches? Are the muscles around the eyes drawing wrinkles and crow's feet?

They're Nature's danger signals.

Only when sight is gone is the terrible danger realized.

It costs so little to help the eyes, if done in time. We can give the early help—later we have to refer the work to oculists.

We examine the eyes in the most intelligent and careful manner. If glasses are needed we can supply the correct lenses mounted in any manner desired, and, of course, we guarantee them fully.

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**The American**

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

way, will be able to live a delightful double life, getting his bed and board in this degenerate period and his patriotic paradise in Washington's era. The skilled writer of this story has gone to the records of two prominent New York families and the Lees of Virginia. The leading characters figure on the Tom Tiddler's ground between the "rebels" and the Tories, ground reddened by the fierce border warfare which lasted for years. In the good, old town of Yonkers still stands the famous Philipse manor house a fine Colonial mansion in good condition still. The beautiful country between Bronx river and Yonkers is the scene of many of the exciting adventures experienced by the romantic young men and maidens who found lovemaking anything but an unmixed delight amid the toils of war, social and real. As to the narrative, it gallops along in keeping with the stirring events described. It is a well-written book, handsomely got up, with exceptionally good illustrations by H. C. Edwards.

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Mind. New York: The Alliance Publishing Co.

The September number of this organ of science, philosophy and religion, psychology, metaphysics and occultism, offers as solid a budget of reading as can well be digested in thirty days. Even its most fantastic excursions provoke sober thought, and nothing is submitted dogmatically. Among the subjects discussed are the doctrine of a future life, the rise and progress of a soul, and among the other contents are poetry and fiction.

### Thirty-second National Encampment of G. A. R. at Cincinnati, O.—Reduced Rates via Pennsylvania Railroad.

For the thirty-second National Encampment of G. A. R., to be held at Cincinnati, O., September 5 to 10, 1898, the Pennsylvania Railroad Company will sell excursion tickets at rate of single fare for the round trip.

These tickets will be sold on September 3, 4, and 5, and will be good to leave Cincinnati returning not earlier than September 6 nor later than September 13, except that by depositing ticket with Joint Agent at Cincinnati on September 5, 6, 7, 8, or 9, and on payment of twenty-five cents, return limit may be extended so that passengers may remain at Cincinnati until October 2.—*Adv.*

### ABOUT BOOKS AND WRITERS.

Prof. Brander Matthews is one of the select and self-elect *illuminati* privileged to air their inspirations in certain periodicals. He is specially noted for two favorite gifts or industries; the first is vending stale truisms as original flashes of thought, and the other is his knack of pushing the trade for his friends. His pet aversion is the great man of any literature outside that of Gotham, especially great English writers. The English novelists he demolishes in fine style; half-a-dozen before breakfast is an easy feat for him. Now he performs a more terrific trick in the sawdust of a monthly serial, no less than knocking the stuffing out of "Hamlet," "Don Quixote" and the "Vicar of Wakefield." He trots across the ring towards the gallery with more amusing drollery than ever, kicks and cuffs these puppets till the benches roar with glee, and then with fine mock gravity, pronounces a funeral oration over their flattened remains.

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"It is absurd to claim verbal inspiration for"—the Old Testament? No, "for *The Vicar of Wakefield*." Excruciatingly funny, this. Encore! "*Humphrey Clinker* is not the most amusing volume now available." Whoever made these claims cannot have read a Brander Matthews page. Again; "But Mark Twain's is a book of to-day, not a book of yesterday and foreign, it is not sanctified by two centuries of eulogy; it abounds in character, fun and philosophy," etc., etc., and, in short, it gives a knock-out blow to all the trash written since Shakespeare's day by "the stock that speaks English on the opposite shores of the Atlantic." That speaks English because it made that tongue, which has certainly not yet been mastered by Prof. Matthews. Mark Twain is an illustrious writer, thrice blessed in having so unstinted a eulogist, because he rather shrinks from blowing his own literary trumpet. His interviewer in the current *Pall Mall Magazine* writes as follows:

"I may say that he reads anything in prose that is clean and healthy, yet he has never been able to find a line in Thackeray which interested him. Addison and Goldsmith are thrown away upon him; and Meredith, perhaps not unnaturally, pro-

## WORN-OUT WOMEN



Most women are drudges. Some are willing, some are unwilling. Some women drudge for themselves, some for their family. Their routine is endless; no matter how ill they feel they work. Women never half take care of themselves. Early decay and wrecked lives abound, mainly through neglect. Every woman should have the book called "Health and Beauty," which the Pe-ru-na Medicine Co., Columbus, O., will mail on request. It tells women some easy things to do to protect health, and all about the virtues of Pe-ru-na for women's peculiar ills. Miss Lizzie Peters, Mascoutah, Ill., writes:

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vokes him to laughter. I asked Mr. Clemens one day how he explained this difference to the acknowledged master craftsmen in his own trade. The explanation candidly given was, 'I have no really literary taste, and never had.'"

\*\*

There is to be a \$2 Tolstoi banquet in New York, to celebrate his seventieth birthday and fiftieth year of authorship. It is not stated that the company of eminent New York authors propose to go clad in Tolstoi peasant garb and feast on vegetarian fare. The good old man will smile one of his melancholy smiles at the idea of idolators outraging the first principles of his ascetic teaching as a token of the sincerity of their discipleship, but Tolstoi is not unfamiliar with the practical joke form of American humor.

\*\*

The New York Times gives an edifying list of the best books published in 1897. This decree, which we do not like to call a bull, is proclaimed *ex cathedra* by the Board of the State Library, and is therefore above criticism. The 212 books are classified to aid in the choice of public libraries. Second on the list headed History, which includes description and travel, stands "Following the Equator," by S. L. Clemens, "a sagacious mixture of sense and non-sense so characteristic of Mark Twain." Next is Dr. Peters' "Explorations at Nippur," followed at a long interval by Bigelow's and Bryce's books on South Africa, and last of all by Nansen's Arctic book. Under the head of fiction are no fewer than forty-three "best books," of which it is gratifying to note that thirty-five are by American authors, if Crawford and Henry James are Americans.

\*\*

Now the cry is for weekly magazines at five or ten cents, which shall sweep away the aristocratic monthlies. But have they not already come? What but magazines are the Sunday supplements, cumbersome, foul smelling, and sometimes full of dangerous explosives. Let our dashing publishers make hay while the sun shines, for the day is coming when the public will grow so weary of these acres of reading that the demand will cease and people once again take to good old books.

\*\*

Perhaps the festive Tolstoites may inaugurate an American commune in the master's name like that in England. These good people are Russian Tolstoilators, too, who hold his doctrines, notably that of non-resistance, and call themselves Spirit Wrestlers. One is a prince, Hilkoff, liable to Siberia if he returns. Tchertkoff was banished because he preached and printed that it is wicked to go to war and kill or get killed. Now they dig potatoes in peace in the village of Purleigh.

\*\*

The Macmillan Company have added to their enormous business that of Richard Bentley & Son, a famous old English house, whose magazine had a brilliant day. Its cover was copied by Harper's monthly with slight alteration. Macmillan's bought the stock of Bohn's classics a few years ago. Its own publications have for many years given the house its pre-eminence in the book trade.

\*\*

Little, Brown & Co. are bringing out new editions of several standard books. The new edition of Edward Everett Hale's famous story, "The Man Without a Country," has a new introduction by the author, written in the year of the war with Spain, and showing the application of the story to the present situation. New editions of Charles Lowe's "Prince Bismarck" and Henry W. Lucy's "Right Hon. William E. Gladstone" are especially timely; and the new edition of "The Little Flowers of St. Francis of Assisi" will have engravings from Moretto's painting of St. Francis in the Milan gallery, and from Giotto's painting, "St. Francis Preaching to the Birds." The fourth volume of Harnack's "History of Dogma" is also just ready. This work is acknowledged by experts to represent the highest scholarship and ripest expression of a trained and sympathetic student.

\*\*

The Macmillan Company will shortly publish "The Control of the Tropics," by Benjamin Kidd, who states in beginning his argument that at the present time the foremost subject occupying the attention of the American people is one which involves the question of the future government of two of the richest portions of the tropical regions of the earth.

Eight books from Yale University, six included under the head of "Yale Studies in English," and edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook, are announced by Messrs. Lamson, Wolfe & Co. They are "Foreign Sources of Modern English Versification," by Mr. Charlton M. Lewis; "Aelfric; a New Study of His Life and Writings," by Caroline Louise White; "The Life of St. Cecilia," from manuscript sources with introduction, variants, and glossary by Miss Ellen Bertha Lovewell; "Dryden's Dramatic Theory and Practice," by Miss Margaret Sherwood; "Studies in Jonson's Comedy," by Miss Elizabeth Woodbridge, and "Guide to the Middle English Metrical Romances," by Miss Anna Hunt Billings. Seneca's "Medea" and "The Daughters of Troy," translated by Miss Ella I. Harris, under Prof. Cook's supervision, have an introduction from his pen, and "Dramatic Law and Dramatic Technique," by Miss Elizabeth Woodbridge, is a volume of essays also owning Yale as its source.

\*\*

The success of George W. Cable as a reader from his own stories has been so pronounced that it is likely to encourage other American authors who read from their own works to tempt fortune in England.

\*\*

A famous Scotchman was John Caird, the recently deceased Principal of Glasgow University. Nearly fifty years ago he preached a sermon before the Queen in the little church near Balmoral. It was on Religion in Common Life. She ordered it to be published and, of course, it sold by the million and the preacher touched fame. He would have done so without royal patronage, but it would not have come for perhaps twenty years. Sweet to the lucky are the uses of royalty. Though a fine scholar and one of the grandest preachers in a time before the order became extinct, it was a humiliation he endured in accepting Dean Stanley's invitation to preach in Westminster Abbey. Not being a member of the national church, but only of the Scotch national church, the law of England forbade Dr. Caird to enter its pulpit. We were among the enormous throng that heard that noble sermon, but it was only tolerated as technically a "lecture," delivered standing on the floor beneath the Pharisaical pulpit, and he, the first theologian of his country, posed before the Abbey congregation as a layman. But the humiliation was that of the bigoted Church, the glory was Caird's.

\*\*

Two rustic Scotchmen are reported as discussing Gladstone. Said one, with solemn emphasis, "There hasna been a lawgiver equal to Gladstane (the original Scotch name) since the days o' Moses!" "Moses!" retorted the other; "Moses got the law gi'en tae him frae the Lord, but Maister Gladstane makes the laws oot o' his ain heed!"

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Somebody promises a book that shall turn its readers into gifted talkers. As if every second person we meet in the street is not already eager to deliver us a lecture limited only by our patience and courtesy. There must be a subtle fascination in that monstrous abortion of a word-conversationalist. Why not simply converser, and spare the extra useless syllables. The book-taught talker can only be a horror in private intercourse. More intelligent listening, when we face one worth listening to, is the desideratum of the hour. The fine art of silence as an aid to real culture would make a worthier book but it would have no sale.

\*\*

A Life of Wellington is announced, with Sir Herbert Maxwell as author. It is intended to be a companion book to Capt. Mahan's Nelson, but if so it will have to be well done. Wellington has scarcely had his rights from the present generation. The victor of a hundred fights, and a statesman to boot, is no mean record. He had much to do with Spanish soldiers and did not rank them high. It is strange that the fascination of Napoleon's name should so long have been allowed to blind popular perception of a better if not also in the true sense a greater man, his suppressor at Waterloo.

\*\*

Frederic Harrison has been lecturing before a literary society in Oxford on style in prose. Whoever has yet to make acquaintance with this brilliant Positivist has an enviable treat in store. Himself one of our boldest and clearest speakers, perhaps the most effective sentence maker among living philosophers, he must have surprised many of his admirers by ridiculing the stuff so many writers put out as beauties of style. We quote from his address without further comment. "To acquire a command of style. . . I know no way they could set about it, but supposing one has something to say, all I have to tell him is this. Think it out quite clearly in your own mind, and then put it down in the simplest words that offer, just as if you were telling it to a friend."

\*\*

He implores his student audience to "shun those vocables which come to us across the Atlantic, or from Newmarket race course, or Whitechapel, with which the gilded youth and journalists 'up-to-date' love to salt their language. . . . Nearly all young writers drift into ragged, preposterous, inorganic sentences, which they ought to break up into two or three." He ridicules the beautiful words of the poetic fraternity, debonair, opalescent, weird, etc. But "I do not say stick to Saxon words and avoid Latin as a law of language, because good and plain English prose needs both. We seldom get the highest poetry without a large use of Saxon, and we hardly reach precise and elaborate explanation without Latin terms. Try to turn precise and elaborate explanation into strict Saxon, and then try to turn 'Our Father, which art in Heaven' into pure Latin words."

\*\*

Study, but not to imitate, the best writers. "Matthew Arnold said to me, 'Flee Carlylese as the very devil!' and I say to you yes, flee Carlylese, Ruskinese, Meredithese, and every other ese, past, present and to come. . . . Read Swift, Defoe, Goldsmith if you care to know what is pure English. I need hardly tell you to read another and greater Book. The Book which begot English prose still remains its supreme type. The English Bible is the true school of English literature. . . . Of melody in style I have said nothing, nor indeed can anything practical be said. It is a thing infinitely subtle, inexplicable and rare. If your ear does not hear the false note as you read or frame the written sentence, then you have no inborn sense of the melody of words, and be quite sure you can never acquire it. One living Englishman has it in the highest form, for the melody of Ruskin's prose may be matched with that of Milton and Shelley. I hardly know any other prose which retains the ring of that ethereal music. Since it is beyond our reach, wholly incommunicable, defiant of analysis and rule, it may be wise to say no more."

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